

Chapter 9 Conducting GPS Field Surveys

Section I Introduction

9-1. General

This chapter presents guidance to field personnel performing GPS surveys for all types of USACE projects. The primary emphasis in this chapter is on static and kinematic carrier phase differential GPS measurements which is covered in Section IV. Absolute positioning is covered in Section II. Section III covers differential code phase GPS positioning techniques.

9-2. General GPS Field Survey Procedures

The following are some general GPS field survey procedures that should be performed at each station, observation, and/or session on a GPS survey.

a. Receiver setup. GPS receivers shall be set up in accordance with manufacturer's specifications prior to beginning any observations. To eliminate any possibility of missing the beginning of the observation session, all equipment should be set up with power supplied to the receivers at least 10 min prior to the beginning of the observation session. Most receivers will lock-on to satellites within 1-2 min of powering up.

b. Antenna setup. All tribrachs used on a project should be calibrated and adjusted prior to beginning each project. Dual use of both optical plummets and standard plumb bobs is strongly recommended since centering errors represent a major error source in all survey work, not just GPS surveying.

c. Height of instrument measurements. Height of instrument (HI) refers to the correct measurement of the distance of the GPS antenna above the reference monument over which it has been placed. HI measurements will be made both before and after each observation session. The HI will be made from the monument to a standard reference point on the antenna. (See Figure 9-1.) These standard reference points for each antenna will be established prior to the beginning of the observations so all observers will be measuring to the same point. All HI measurements will be made both in meters and feet for redundancy and blunder detection. HI measurements shall

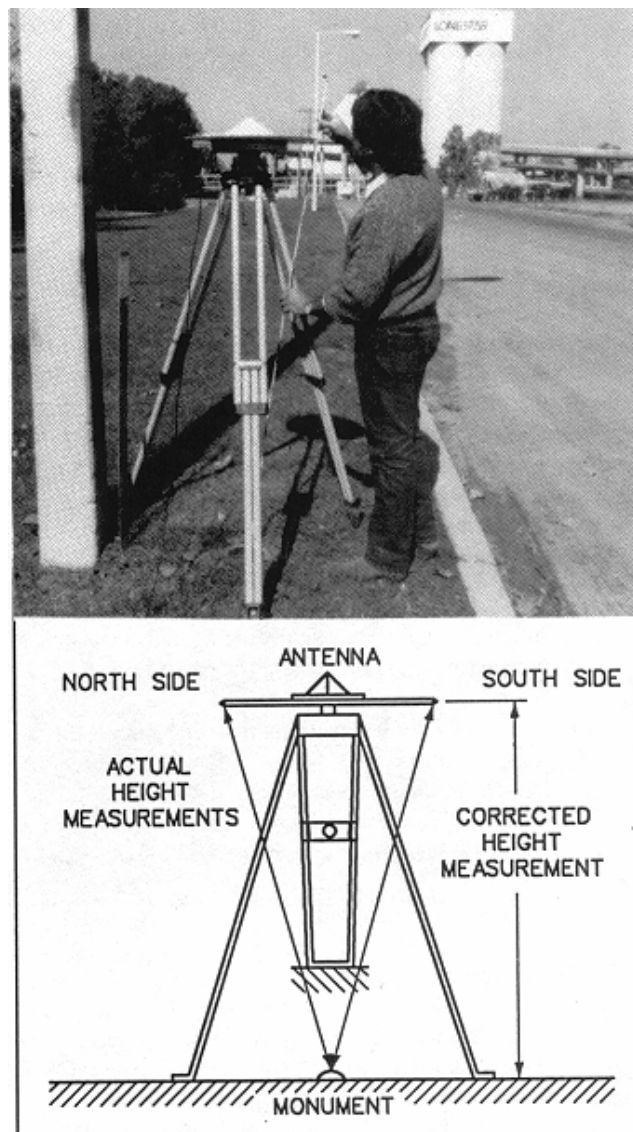


Figure 9-1. Height of instrument measurement setup

be determined to the nearest millimeter in metric units and to the nearest 0.01 ft (or 1/16 in.). It should be noted whether the HI is vertical or diagonal.

d. Field GPS observation recording procedures. Field recording books, log sheets, or log forms will be completed for each station and/or session. Any acceptable recording media may be used. For archiving purposes, standard bound field survey books are preferred; however, USACE Commands may require specific recording sheets/forms to be used in lieu of a survey book. The amount of record-keeping detail will be project-dependent; low-order

topographic mapping points need not have as much descriptive information as would permanently marked primary control points. The following typical data may be included on these field log records:

- (1) Project, construction contract, observer(s) name(s), and/or contractor firm and contract number.
- (2) Station designation.
- (3) Station file number.
- (4) Date, weather conditions, etc.
- (5) Time start/stop session (local and UTC).
- (6) Receiver, antenna, data recording unit, and tribrach make, model, and serial numbers.
- (7) Antenna height: vertical or diagonal measures in inches (or feet) and meters (or centimeters).
- (8) Space vehicle designations (satellite number).
- (9) Sketch of station location.
- (10) Approximate geodetic location and elevation.
- (11) Problems encountered.

USACE Commands may require that additional data be recorded. These will be contained in individual project instructions or contract delivery order scopes. Samples of typical GPS recording forms are shown later in this chapter.

e. Field processing and verification. It is strongly recommended that GPS data processing and verification be performed in the field where applicable. This is to identify any problems that may exist which can be corrected before returning from the field. Processing and verification is covered in Chapters 10 and 11.

Section II

Absolute GPS Positioning Techniques

9-3. General

The accuracy obtained by GPS point positioning is dependent on the user's authorization. The SPS user can provide an accuracy of 80-100 m. SPS data are most often

expressed in real time; however, the data can be post-processed if station occupation was over a period of time. The post-processing produces a best-fit point position. Although this will provide a better internal approximation, the effects of S/A when activated still degrade positional accuracy up to 80-100 m. The PPS user requires a decryption device within the receiver to decode the effects of S/A. The PPS provides an accuracy between 10 and 16 m when a single-frequency receiver is used for observation. Dual-frequency receivers using the precise ephemeris may produce an absolute positional accuracy on the order of 1 m or better. These positions are based on the absolute WGS 84 ellipsoid. The PPS that uses the precise ephemeris requires the data to be post-processed. At present, a commercial or military receiver capable of meter-level GPS point positioning without post-processing is not available.

9-4. Absolute (Point Positioning) Techniques

There are two techniques used for point positioning in the absolute mode. They are long-term averaging of positions and differencing between signals.

a. In long-term averaging, a receiver is set up to store positions over a period of observation time. The length of observation time varies based upon the accuracy required. The longer the period of data collection, the better average position. These observation times can range between 1 and 24 hr. This technique can also be used in real-time (i.e., the receiver averages the positions as they are calculated). For example, the precise light-weight GPS receiver (PLGR) GPS receiver uses this technique in calculating a position at a point.

b. The process of differencing between signals can only be performed in a post-processed mode. Currently, the Defense Mapping Agency has produced software that can perform this operation.

Section III

Differential Code Phase GPS Positioning Techniques

9-5. General

Differential (or relative) GPS surveying is the determination of one location with respect to another location. When using this technique with the C/A- or P-code it is called relative code phase positioning or surveying. Relative code phase positioning has limited application to detailed engineering surveying and topographic site plan mapping applications. Exceptions include general

reconnaissance surveys, hydrographic survey vessel or dredge positioning (see EM 1110-2-1003 for further information on these surveys), and some operational military or geodetic survey support functions. Additional applications for relative code phase positioning have been on the increase as positional accuracies have become better.

9-6. Relative Code Phase Positioning

The code phase tracking differential system is currently a functional GPS survey system for positioning hydrographic survey vessels and dredges. It also has application for topographic, small-scale mapping surveys and input to a GIS database. The basic concept is shown in Figure 9-2. Although greater positional accuracies can be obtained with use of the P-code, DoD's implementation of A/S will limit its use. A real-time dynamic DGPS positioning system includes a reference station, communication link, and user (remote) equipment. If results are not required in real-time, the communication link can be eliminated and the positional information is post-processed.

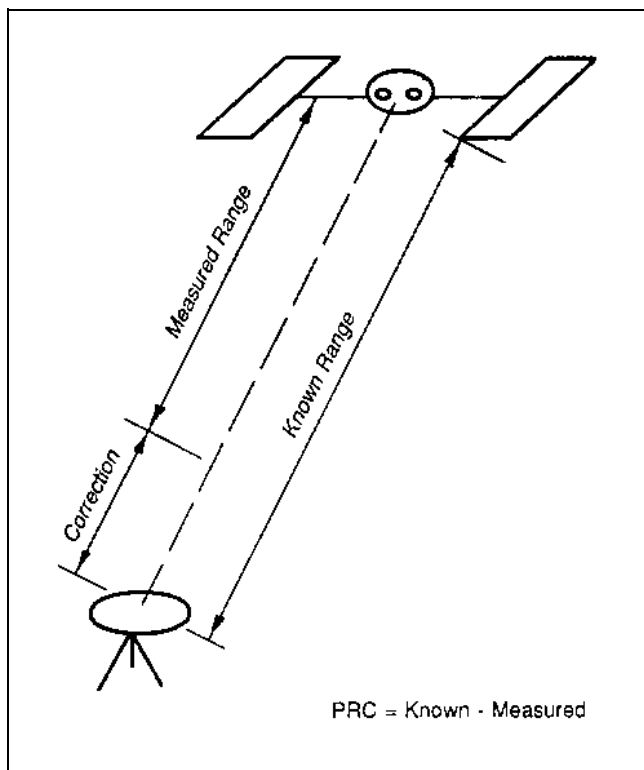


Figure 9-2. Code phase DGPS concept

a. Accuracy of relative code surveys. Relative code phase surveys can obtain accuracies of 0.5 to 10 m.

These accuracies will meet Class 1 hydrographic survey standards as stated in EM 1110-2-1003. This type of survey could also be used for small-scale mapping or used as input to a GIS database.

b. Reference station. The reference station is placed on a known survey monument in an area having an unobstructed view of the sky of at least four satellites, 10 deg above the horizon. It consists of a GPS receiver, GPS antenna, processor, and a communication link (if real-time results are desired). The reference station measures the timing and ranging information broadcast by the satellites and computes and formats range corrections for broadcast to the user equipment. Using the technology of differential pseudo-ranging, the position of a survey vessel is found relative to the reference station. The pseudo-ranges are collected by the GPS receiver and transferred to the processor where PRCs are computed and formatted for data transmission. Many manufacturers have incorporated the processor within the GPS receiver, eliminating the need for an external processing device. The recommended data format is that proposed by the RTCM Special Committee (SC) 104 v. 2.0. The processor should be capable of computing and formatting PRCs every 1-3 sec. A longer time span could affect the user's positional solution due to effects of S/A.

c. Communication link. The communication link is used as a transfer media for differential corrections. The main requirement of the communication link is that transmission be at a minimum rate of 300 bits per second. The type of communication system is dependent on the user's requirements.

(1) Frequency authorization. All communication links necessitate a reserved frequency for operation to avoid interference with other activities in the area. No transmission can occur over a frequency until the frequency has been officially authorized for use in transmitting digital data. This applies to all government agencies. Allocating a frequency is handled by the FOA's Frequency Manager responsible for the area of application, the vendor supplying the equipment, and the user.

(2) Ultra High Frequency (UHF) and Very High Frequency (VHF). Communication links operating at UHF and VHF are viable systems for the broadcast of DGPS corrections. UHF and VHF can extend out some 20 to 50 km, depending on local conditions. The disadvantages of UHF and VHF links are their limited range to line of sight and the effects of signal shadowing (i.e. islands, structures, and buildings), multipath and licensing issues.

(3) Satellite communications. There are several companies that sell satellite communication systems which can be used for the transmission of PRCs. These systems can be efficient for wide areas, but are usually higher in price.

(4) License-free radio-modems. Several companies have developed low wattage (1 watt or less) radio-modems to transmit digital data. These radio-modems require no license and can be used to transmit DGPS corrections in a localized area (within 5-8 km or less depending on line of sight). The disadvantages are the short range and line-of-sight limitations.

d. User (remote station) equipment. The remote receiver should be a multichannel single frequency C/A-code GPS receiver. The receiver must be able to store the raw data to be post-processed. During post-processing, these PRCs are generated with the GPS data from the reference station and then applied to the remote station data to obtain a corrected position. If the results are desired in real time, the receiver must be able to accept the PRCs from the reference station (via data link) in the RTCM SC 104 v. 2.0 format and apply those corrections to the measured pseudo-range. The corrected position can then be input into a data collector, hydro package, or GIS database.

e. USCG DGPS Navigation Service. The USCG DGPS Navigation Service was developed to provide a nationwide (coastal regions, Great Lakes regions, and some inland waterways), all-weather, real-time, radio navigation service in support of commercial and recreational maritime interests. A 50+ station network will be operational by FY96. Its accuracy was originally designed to fulfill an 8- to 20-m maritime navigation accuracy. However, a reconfigured version of the USCG system will now yield 1.5-m 2DRMS at distances upward of 150 km from the reference beacon. The system operates on the USCG marine radio beacon frequencies (285-325 kHz). Each radio beacon has an effective range of 150 to 250 km at a 99.9 percent signal availability level. It is fully expected that the USCG system, once completed will be the primary marine navigation device used by commercial and recreational vessels requiring meter-level accuracy.

(a) Corps-wide implementation and use of the USCG system will eliminate need for maintaining existing USACE-operated microwave positioning systems. It will also significantly reduce or eliminate USACE requirements to develop independent UHF/VHF DGPS networks for meter-level vessel navigation and positioning.

(b) The USCG system has potential for supporting other nonmarine activities such as master planning, engineering, mapping, operations, and GIS development activities where meter-level accuracy is sufficient.

Section IV

Differential Carrier Phase GPS Horizontal Positioning Techniques

9-7. General

Differential (or relative) GPS carrier phase surveying is used to obtain the highest precision from GPS and has direct application to most USACE military construction and civil works topographic and engineering survey activities.

a. Differential survey techniques. There are basically six different GPS differential surveying techniques (paragraph 6-4) in use today:

- (1) Static.
- (2) Pseudo-kinematic.
- (3) Stop and go kinematic.
- (4) Kinematic.
- (5) Rapid static.
- (6) On-the-fly (OTF)/Real-time kinematic (RTK).

Procedures for performing each of these methods are described below. These procedures are guidelines for conducting a field survey. Manufacturers' procedures should be followed, when appropriate, for conducting a GPS field survey. Project horizontal control densification can be performed using any one of these methods. Procedurally, all six methods are similar in that each measures a 3D baseline vector between a receiver at one point (usually of known local project coordinates) and a second receiver at another point, resulting in a vector difference between the two points occupied. The major distinction between static and kinematic baseline measurements involves the method by which the carrier wave integer cycle ambiguities are resolved; otherwise they are functionally the same process.

b. Ambiguity resolution. Cycle ambiguity is the unknown number of whole carrier wavelengths between the satellite and receiver. It is also referred to as "Integer

Ambiguity.” Figure 9-3 shows an example of an integer ambiguity measurement. Successful ambiguity resolution is required for successful baseline formulations. Generally, in static surveying, instrumental error and ambiguity resolution can be achieved through long-term averaging and simple geometrical principles, resulting in solutions to a linear equation that produces a resultant position. But ambiguity resolution can also be achieved through a combination of the pseudo-range and carrier beat measurements, made possible by a knowledge of the PRN modulation code.

c. Post-observation data reduction. Currently, all carrier phase relative surveying techniques, except OTF and RTK, require post-processing of the observed data to determine the relative baseline vector differences. OTF and RTK can be performed in real-time or in the post-processed mode. Post-processing of observed satellite data involves the differencing of signal phase measurements recorded by the receiver. The differencing process reduces biases in the receiver and satellite oscillators and is performed in a computer. When contemplating the purchase of a receiver, the user should keep in mind the computer requirements necessary to post-process the GPS data. Most manufacturers require, as a minimum, a

386-based IBM-compatible personal computer (PC) with a math co-processor. It is also strongly recommended that all baseline reductions be performed in the field, if possible, in order to allow an onsite assessment of the survey adequacy.

9-8. Static GPS Survey Techniques

Static GPS surveying is perhaps the most common method of densifying project network control. Two GPS receivers are used to measure a GPS baseline distance. The line between a pair of GPS receivers from which simultaneous GPS data have been collected and processed is a vector referred to as a baseline. The station coordinate differences are calculated in terms of a 3D, earth-centered coordinate system that utilizes X-, Y-, and Z-values based on the WGS 84 geocentric ellipsoid model. These coordinate differences are then subsequently shifted to fit the local project coordinate system.

a. General. GPS receiver pairs are set up over stations of either known or unknown location. Typically one of the receivers is positioned over a point whose coordinates are known (or have been carried forward as on a traverse), and the second is positioned over another point

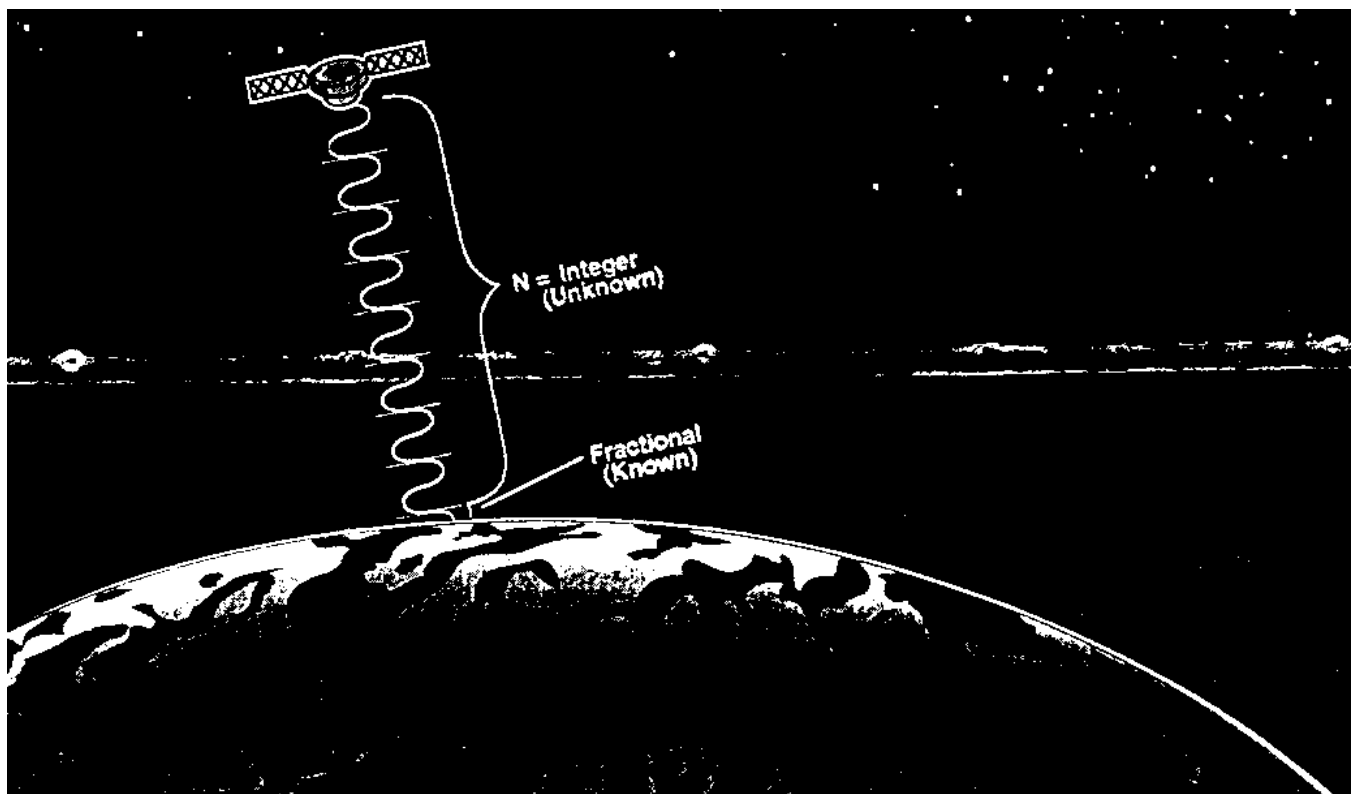


Figure 9-3. Integer Ambiguity

whose coordinates are unknown, but are desired. Both GPS receivers must receive signals from the same four (or more) satellites for a period of time that can range from a few minutes to several hours, depending on the conditions of observation and precision required.

b. Static baseline occupation time. Station occupation time is dependent on baseline length, number of satellites observed, and the GPS equipment used. In general, 30 min to 2 hr is a good approximation for baseline occupation time for shorter baselines of 1-30 km. A rough guideline developed by Trimble, Inc., for estimating occupation time is shown in Figure 9-4. Note that this guideline exceeds the recommended minimum observing times prescribed in Table 8-1.

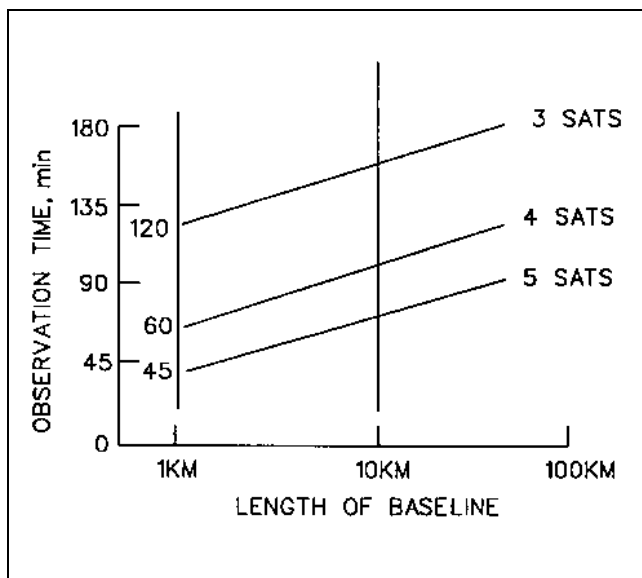


Figure 9-4. Station occupation time versus baseline distance

(1) Since there is no definitive guidance for determining the required baseline occupation time, the results from the baseline reduction (and subsequent adjustments) will govern the adequacy of the observation irrespective of the actual observation time. The most prudent policy is to exceed the minimum estimated times, especially for lines where reoccupation would be difficult or field data assessment capabilities are limited.

(2) For baselines greater than 50 km in length, the ionosphere may have an adverse effect on the solution. Adverse ionosphere effects for baselines of this length can be reduced by using a dual-frequency GPS receiver, as opposed to a single frequency as is normally used.

c. Satellite visibility requirements. The stations that are selected for survey must have an unobstructed view of the sky for at least 15 deg or greater above the horizon during the "observation window." An observation window is the period of time when observable satellites are in the sky and the survey can be successfully conducted.

d. Common satellite observations. It is critical for a static survey baseline reduction/solution that the receivers simultaneously observe the same satellites during the same time interval. For instance, if receiver No. 1 observes a satellite set during the time interval 1,000 to 1,200 and another receiver, receiver No. 2, observes that same satellite set during the time interval 1,100 to 1,300, only the period of common observation, 1,100 to 1,200, can be processed to formulate a correct vector difference between these receivers.

e. Data post-processing. After the observation session has been completed, the received GPS signals from both receivers are then processed (i.e., "post-processed") in a computer to calculate the 3D baseline vector components between the two observed points. From these vector distances, local or geodetic coordinates may be computed and/or adjusted.

f. Survey configuration. Static baselines may be extended from existing control using any of the control densification methods described in Chapter 8. These include networking, traverse, spur techniques, or combinations thereof. Specific requirements are normally contained in project instructions (or scope of work) provided by the District office.

g. Receiver operation and data reduction. Specific receiver operation and baseline data post-processing requirements are very manufacturer-dependent. The user is strongly advised to consult and study manufacturer's operations manuals thoroughly along with the baseline data reduction examples shown in this manual.

h. Accuracy of static surveys. Accuracy of GPS static surveys will usually exceed 1 ppm. Currently of all GPS processing methods, static is the most accurate and can be used for any order survey.

9-9. Stop-and-Go Kinematic GPS Survey Techniques

Stop-and-go surveying is similar to static surveying in that each method requires at least two receivers simultaneously

recording observations. A major difference between static and stop-and-go surveying is the amount of time required for a receiver to stay fixed over a point of unknown position. In stop-and-go surveying, the first receiver--the home or reference receiver--remains fixed on a known control point. The second receiver--the "rover" receiver--collects observations statically on a point of unknown position for a period of time (usually a few minutes), and then moves to subsequent unknown points to collect signals for a short period of time. During the survey, at least four common satellites (preferably five) need to be continuously tracked by both receivers. Once all required points have been occupied by the rover receiver, the observations are then post-processed by a computer to calculate baseline vector/coordinate differences between the known control point and points occupied by the rover receiver during the survey session. The main advantage of this form of GPS surveying over static surveying is the reduced occupation time required over the unknown points. Because stop-and-go surveying requires less occupation time over unknown points, time and cost for the conduct of a survey are significantly reduced. Achievable accuracies typically equal or exceed Third-Order, which is adequate for most USACE projects.

a. Survey procedure. A typical stop-and-go survey scheme is illustrated in Figure 9-5. Stop-and-go GPS surveying is performed similarly to a conventional EDM traverse or electronic total station radial survey. The system is initially calibrated by performing either an antenna swap (see *d* below) with one known point and one unknown point or by performing a static measurement over a known baseline. This calibration process is performed to resolve initial cycle ambiguities. This known baseline may be part of the existing network or can be established using static GPS survey procedures described above. The remote roving receiver then traverses between unknown points as if performing a radial topographic survey. Typically, the points are double-connected, or double-run, as in a level line. Optionally, two fixed receivers may be used to provide redundancy on the remote points. With only 1-1/2 min at a point, X-Y-Z coordinate production is high and limited only by satellite observing windows, travel time between points, and overhead obstructions.

b. Satellite lock. During a stop-and-go kinematic survey, the rover station must maintain lock on at least four satellites during the period of survey (the reference station must be observing at least the same four satellites). Loss of lock occurs when the receiver is unable to continuously record satellite signals or the transmitted satellite

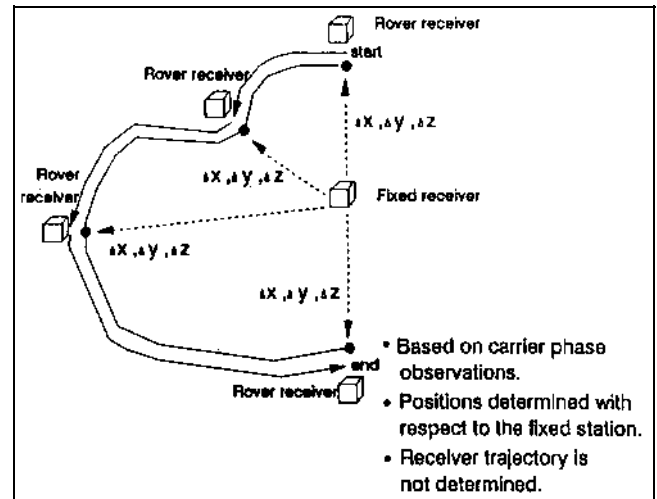


Figure 9-5. Typical stop-and-go survey scheme

signal is disrupted and the receiver is not able to record it. If satellite lock is lost, the roving receiver must reobserve the last control station surveyed before loss of lock. The receiver operator must monitor the GPS receiver when performing the stop-and-go survey to ensure loss of lock does not occur. Some manufacturers have now incorporated an alarm into their receiver that warns the user when loss of lock occurs, thus making the operator's job of monitoring the receiver easier.

c. Site constraints. Survey site selection and route between rover stations to be observed are critical. All sites must have a clear view of satellites having a vertical angle of 15 deg or greater. The routes between rover occupation stations must be clear of obstructions so that the satellite signal is not interrupted. Each unknown station to be occupied should be occupied for a minimum of at least 1-1/2 min. Stations should be occupied two or three times to provide redundancy between observations.

d. Antenna swap calibration procedure. Although the antenna swap procedure can be used to initialize a survey prior to a stop-and-go survey, an antenna swap can also be used to determine a precise baseline and azimuth between two points. The procedure requires that both stations occupied and the path between both stations maintain an unobstructed view of the horizon. A minimum of four satellites and maintainable lock are required to perform an antenna swap; however, more than four satellites are preferred. To perform an antenna swap, one receiver/antenna is placed over a point of known control and the second, a distance of 10 to 100 m away from the other receiver. Referring to Figure 9-6, the receivers at each

station collect data for approximately 2 to 4 min. The receivers/antennae sets then swap locations; the receiver/antenna at the known station is moved to the unknown site while the other receiver/antenna at the unknown site is moved to the known site. Satellite data are again collected for 2 to 4 min. The receivers are then swapped back to their original locations. This completes one antenna swap calibration. If satellite lock is lost during the procedure, the procedure must be repeated.

e. Accuracy of stop-and-go surveys. Accuracy of stop-and-go baseline measurements will usually well exceed 1 part in 5,000; thus, Third-Order classification project/mapping horizontal control can be effectively, efficiently, and accurately established using this technique. For many USACE projects, this order of horizontal accuracy will be more than adequate; however, field procedures should be designed to provide adequate redundancy for what are basically “open-ended” or “spur” points. Good satellite geometry and minimum multipath are also essential in performing acceptable stop-and-go surveys.

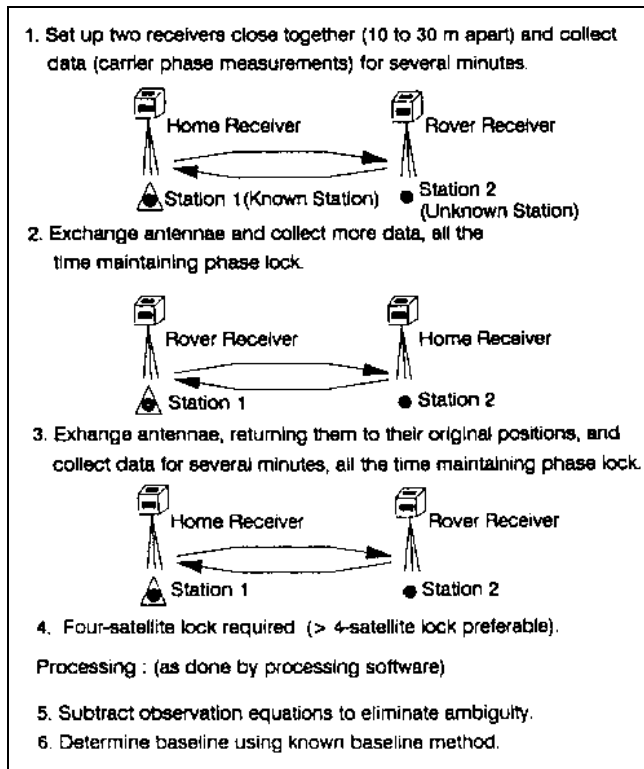


Figure 9-6. Stop-and-go ambiguity resolution (antenna swap method)

9-10. Kinematic GPS Survey Techniques

Kinematic surveying using differential carrier phase tracking is similar to the two previous types of differential carrier phase GPS surveying because it also requires two receivers recording observations simultaneously. Kinematic surveying is often referred to as dynamic surveying. As in stop-and-go surveying, the reference receiver remains fixed on a known control point while the roving receiver collects data on a constantly moving platform (vehicle, vessel, aircraft, manpack, etc.), as illustrated in Figure 9-7. Unlike stop-and-go surveying, kinematic surveying techniques do not require the rover receiver to remain motionless over the unknown point. The observation data are later post-processed with a computer to calculate relative vector/coordinate differences to the roving receiver.

a. Survey procedure. A kinematic survey requires two single frequency (L1) receivers. One receiver is set over a known point (reference station) and the other is used as a rover (i.e., moved from point to point or along a path). Before the rover receiver can rove, a period of static initialization or antenna swap (see paragraph 9-9d) must be performed. This period of static initialization is dependent on the number of satellites visible. Once this is done, the rover receiver can move from point to point as long as satellite lock is maintained on at least four common (with the reference station) satellites. If loss of satellite lock occurs, a new period of static initialization must take place. It is important to follow manufacturers' specifications when performing a kinematic survey.

b. Kinematic data processing techniques. In general, kinematic data processing techniques are similar to those used in static surveying (Chapter 10). When processing kinematic GPS data, the user must ensure that satellite lock was maintained on four or more satellites and that cycle slips are adequately resolved in the data recorded.

c. Accuracy of kinematic surveys. Differential (carrier phase) kinematic survey errors are correlated between observations received at the reference and rover receivers, as in differential static surveys. Experimental test results indicate kinematic surveys can produce results in centimeters. Test results from an experimental full kinematic GPS survey conducted by U.S. Army Engineer Topographic Laboratory (now TEC) personnel at White Sands Missile Range, Holloman Air Force Base, New Mexico, verified (under ideal test conditions) that kinematic GPS

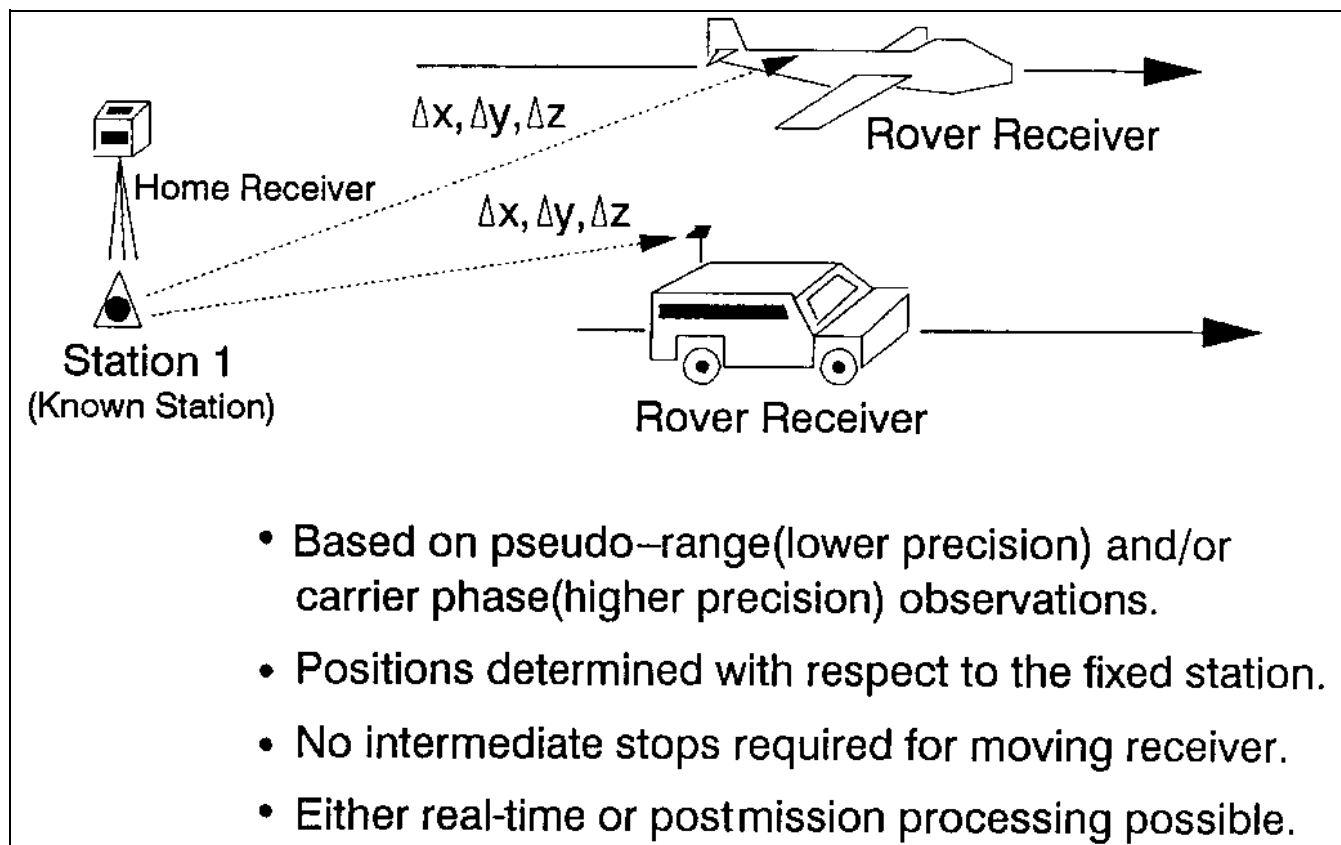


Figure 9-7. Kinematic survey techniques

surveying could achieve centimeter-level accuracy over distances up to 30 km.

9-11. Pseudo-Kinematic GPS Survey Techniques

Pseudo-kinematic GPS surveying is similar to stop-and-go techniques except that loss of satellite lock is tolerated when the receiver is transported between occupation sites (in fact, the roving receiver can be turned off during movement between occupation sites, although this is not recommended). This feature provides the surveyor with a more favorable positioning technique since obstructions such as bridge overpasses, tall buildings, and overhanging vegetation are common. Loss of lock that may result due to these obstructions is more tolerable when pseudo-kinematic techniques are employed.

a. General. The pseudo-kinematic techniques require that one receiver be placed over a known control station. A rover receiver occupies each unknown station for 5 min. Approximately 1 hr after the initial station occupation, the same rover receiver must reoccupy each unknown station.

b. Common satellite requirements. The pseudo-kinematic technique requires that at least four of the same satellites are observed between initial station occupations and the requisite reoccupation. For example, the rover receiver occupies Station A for the first 5 min and tracks satellites 6, 9, 11, 12, 13; then 1 hr later, during the second occupation of Station A, the rover receiver tracks satellites 2, 6, 8, 9, 19. In this example, only satellites 6 and 9 are common to the two sets, so the data cannot be processed because four common satellites were not tracked for the initial station occupation and the requisite reoccupation.

c. Planning. Prior mission planning is essential in conducting a successful pseudo-kinematic survey. Especially critical is the determination of whether or not common satellite coverage will be present for the desired period of the survey. Also, during the period of observation, one receiver, the base receiver, must continuously occupy a known control station.

d. Pseudo-kinematic data processing. Pseudo-kinematic survey satellite data records and resultant baseline

processing methods are similar to those performed for static GPS surveys. Since the pseudo-kinematic technique requires each station to be occupied for 5 min and then reoccupied for 5 min approximately an hour later, this technique is not suitable when control stations are widely spaced and transportation between stations within the allotted time is impractical.

e. Accuracy of pseudo-kinematic surveys. Pseudo-kinematic survey accuracies are similar to kinematic survey accuracies of a few centimeters.

9-12. Rapid Static Surveying Procedures

Rapid static surveying is a combination of the stop-and-go kinematic, pseudo-kinematic, and static surveying methods. The rover or remote receiver spends only a short time on each station, loss of lock is allowed between stations, and accuracies are similar to static. However, rapid static surveying does not require re-observation of remote stations like pseudo-kinematic. The rapid static technique does require the use of dual-frequency (L1/L2) GPS receivers with either cross correlation or squaring or any other technique used to compensate for A-S.

a. Survey procedure. Rapid static surveying requires that one receiver be placed over a known control point. A rover or remote receiver occupies each unknown station for 5-20 min, depending on the number of satellites and their geometry. Because most receiver operations are manufacturer-specific, following the manufacturers' guidelines and procedures for this type of survey is important.

b. Rapid static data processing. Data collected in the rapid static mode should be processed in accordance with the manufacturer's specifications. See Chapter 10 for more information on post-processing GPS data.

c. Accuracy of rapid static surveys. Accuracies of rapid static surveys are similar to static surveys of a centimeter or less. This method can be used for medium-to-high accuracy surveys up to 1/1,000,000.

9-13. OTF/RTK Surveying Techniques

OTF/RTK surveying is similar to kinematic differential GPS surveying because it requires two receivers recording observations simultaneously and allows the rover receiver

to be moving. Unlike kinematic surveying, OTF/RTK surveying techniques use dual-frequency L1/L2 GPS observations and can handle loss of satellite lock. Since OTF/RTK uses the L2 frequency, the GPS receiver must be capable of tracking the L2 frequency during A-S. There are several techniques used to obtain L2 during A-S. These include the squaring and cross-correlation methods.

a. Ambiguity resolution. As explained before in paragraph 9-7b, successful ambiguity resolution is required for successful baseline formulations. The OTF/RTK technology allows the remote to initialize and resolve these integers without a period of static initialization. With OTF/RTK, if loss of satellite lock occurs, initialization can occur while in motion. The integers can be resolved at the rover within 10-30 sec, depending on the distance from the reference station. OTF/RTK uses the L2 frequency transmitted by the GPS satellites in the ambiguity resolution. After the integers are resolved, only the L1 C/A is used to compute the positions.

b. Survey procedure. OTF/RTK surveying requires dual frequency L1/L2 GPS receivers. One of the GPS receivers is set over a known point, and the other is placed on a moving or mobile platform. If the survey is performed in real time, a data link and a processor (external or internal) are needed. The data link is used to transfer the raw data from the reference station to the remote.

(1) Internal processor. If the OTF/RTK system is done with an internal processor (i.e., built into the receiver), follow manufacturer's guidelines.

(2) External processor. If OTF/RTK is performed with external processors (i.e., notebook computer), then computer at the reference (386-based PC) collects the raw GPS data and formats it to be sent via a data link to the remote. The notebook computer at the rover (486/33 based PC) processes the raw data from the reference and remote receivers to resolve the integers and obtain a position.

c. Accuracy of OTF/RTK surveys. OTF/RTK surveys are accurate to within 10 cm when the distance from the reference to the rover does not exceed 20 k. Results of testing by TEC produced results of less than 10 cm.